# Identification of *Dlk1-Dio3* Imprinted Gene Cluster Noncoding RNAs as Novel Candidate Biomarkers for Liver Tumor Promotion

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The molecular events during nongenotoxic carcinogenesis and their temporal order are poorly understood but thought to include long-lasting perturbations of gene expression. Here, we have investigated the temporal sequence of molecular and pathological perturbations at early stages of phenobarbital (PB) mediated liver tumor promotion in vivo. Molecular profiling (mRNA, microRNA [miRNA], DNA methylation, and proteins) of mouse liver during 13 weeks of PB treatment revealed progressive increases in hepatic expression of long noncoding RNAs and miRNAs originating from the Dlk1-Dio3 imprinted gene cluster, a locus that has recently been associated with stem cell pluripotency in mice and various neoplasms in humans. PB induction of the Dlk1-Dio3 cluster noncoding RNA (ncRNA) Meg3 was localized to glutamine synthetase-positive hypertrophic perivenous hepatocytes, suggesting a role for β-catenin signaling in the dysregulation of Dlk1-Dio3 ncRNAs. The carcinogenic relevance of Dlk1-Dio3 locus ncRNA induction was further supported by in vivo genetic dependence on constitutive androstane receptor and \( \beta \)-catenin pathways. Our data identify *Dlk1-Dio3* ncRNAs as novel candidate early biomarkers for mouse liver tumor promotion and provide new opportunities for assessing the carcinogenic potential of novel compounds.

*Key Words:* nongenotoxic carcinogenesis; phenobarbital; biomarker; noncoding RNAs; Dlk1-Dio3 imprinted cluster; epigenetics.

The initiating events leading to carcinogenesis are still poorly understood and may include temporal accumulation of genetic and epigenetic mutations associated with perturbed gene expression programs (Feinberg et al., 2006; Jones and Baylin, 2007; Negrini et al., 2010) leading to hallmark phenotypic alterations (Hanahan and Weinberg, 2011). Because tumor cells often display stem cell-like features, including reduced differentiation and increased proliferation, it has been suggested that tumors arise from the resident stem cell populations in tissues (Bonnet and Dick, 1997; Reya et al., 2001). Alternatively, cancer cells may originate from differentiated postmitotic cells that have gained stem cell-like features by the sequential accumulation of mutations and clonal selection (Dyer and Bremner, 2005; Merlo et al., 2006). The role of epigenetic mechanisms in the regulation of both carcinogenesis and cellular stemness is well established, and therefore it has been suggested that epigenetic changes might be among the first and initiating events during carcinogenesis (Feinberg et al., 2006). Epigenetic mechanisms that may be deregulated in carcinogenesis include DNA methylation, histone posttranslational modifications, and noncoding RNAs (ncRNAs) (Berdasco and Esteller, 2010; Esteller and Rodriguez-Paredes, 2011; Prasanth and Spector, 2007). MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are the best-characterized regulatory ncRNAs. These small 20- to 22-nucleotide-long RNAs regulate the translation of their target messenger RNAs (mRNAs) by

targeting complementary antisense sequences in the transcripts (Bartel, 2004). Another interesting, but yet poorly understood, class of ncRNAs are the long noncoding RNAs (lncRNAs) (Chen and Carmichael, 2010), which are generally defined as over ~200-nucleotide-long RNAs without apparent coding functions. Known functions of lncRNAs are linked to the regulation of chromatin and nuclear structure both in *cis* and *trans* (Chen and Carmichael, 2010; Khalil *et al.*, 2009), and several lncRNAs play key roles in development, including the regulation of pluripotency, differentiation, and genomic imprinting (Koerner *et al.*, 2009; Guttman *et al.*, 2011).

Environmental factors such as nutrition or xenobiotics can trigger changes in gene expression programs to ensure appropriate adaptive responses to changing conditions. Exposure to xenobiotic toxicants, including several nongenotoxic carcinogens, can lead to profound and long-lasting, heritable epigenetic perturbations (Lebaron *et al.*, 2010; Lempiainen *et al.*, 2011; Koturbash *et al.*, 2011). The characterization of early transcriptional and epigenetic mechanisms during nongenotoxic carcinogenesis (NGC) is a promising approach for the identification of novel safety biomarkers.

Phenobarbital (PB) is an anticonvulsant commonly used for treatment of epilepsy and other seizures. In rodents, PB promotes both spontaneous and chemically induced liver tumors, with chronic treatment leading to a significant increase in hepatic tumor incidences (Becker, 1982). PB is the classic nongenotoxic rodent carcinogen (Whysner et al., 1996) and has been used widely as a model compound for studying mechanisms underlying nongenotoxic chemical carcinogen-induced rodent liver carcinogenesis (Lempiainen et al., 2011; Phillips et al. 2009a,b; Ross et al., 2010; Yamamoto et al., 2004). Liver tumor promotion by PB is dependent on constitutive androstane receptor (CAR) and β-catenin (Huang et al., 2005; Rignall et al., 2011; Yamamoto et al., 2004), and prolonged PB treatment selects for Ctnnb1 (encoding β-catenin) mutated tumors (Aydinlik et al., 2001). PB regulates the nuclear localization of CAR, and CAR is required for PB-induced early gene expression changes and hyperplasia/hypertrophy (Kawamoto et al., 1999; Phillips et al., 2009a; Ross et al., 2010). In addition to CAR, PB also activates another nuclear receptor, called pregnane X receptor (PXR) (Lehmann et al., 1998), which has overlapping functions with CAR to regulate xenobiotic metabolism and detoxification in liver (Tolson and Wang, 2010). Several rodent studies have reported time- and tissue-specific gene expression and DNA methylation perturbations upon PB treatment, both at early stages of liver tumor promotion and in tumors (Bachman et al., 2006; Counts et al., 1996; Goodman and Watson, 2002; Kostka et al., 2007; Lempiainen et al., 2011; Phillips et al., 2007; Phillips and Goodman, 2008; Phillips et al., 2009a,b).

To investigate the temporal sequence of gene regulatory events underlying tumor promotion by a nongenotoxic carcinogen *in vivo*, we have used integrated molecular profiling of coding RNA and ncRNA species, DNA methylation, protein expression, and protein modifications anchored to

histopathological analyses at seven time points (1 day to 13 weeks) in PB-treated and vehicle-treated B6C3F1 mice. We show that early PB-induced molecular responses include the progressive increase in hepatic expression of lncRNAs and miRNAs from the Dlk1-Dio3 imprinted gene cluster. The carcinogenic relevance of Dlk1-Dio3 lncRNAs is further supported by their genetic dependence on CAR and  $\beta$ -catenin, two pathways essential for PB-mediated liver tumor promotion. These novel ncRNA candidate early biomarkers may provide useful mechanism-of-action-based tools for the early detection and prediction of xenobiotic-induced nongenotoxic hepatocarcinogenesis.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethics statement. In vivo rodent studies were performed following either University of Tübingen institutional guidelines (Rignall et al., 2011) or in conformity with the Swiss Animal Welfare Law (specifically under the Animal Licenses No. 2345 by "Kantonales Veterinäramt Basel-Stadt" [Cantonal Veterinary Office, Basel] and No. 5041 by "Kantonales Veterinäramt Baselland" [Cantonal Veterinary Office, Basel Land]).

Animal treatment and sample preparation. For the seven-time point 13-week study, 29- to 32-day-old male B6C3F1/Crl (C57BL/6 ♀ × C3H/He 3) mice were obtained from Charles River Laboratories (Germany). For the 13-week (+ 4-week recovery) study, 9- to 11-week-old CARKO/PXRKO (Scheer et al., 2008) and wild-type (WT) C57BL/6 male mice were obtained from Taconic (Germany). Animals were allowed to acclimatize for 5 days prior to being randomly divided into two treatment groups (n = 5 per time point). PB (Sigma [St Louis, MO] #04710, 0.05% [wt/vol] in drinking water) was administered to one group through ad libitum access to drinking water. Mice were checked daily for activity and behavior and sacrificed on the indicated dates. Blood was withdrawn for PK analysis, and liver was removed, split into several sections, either frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C for subsequent analyses or fixed in neutral phosphate-buffered formalin, and embedded in paraffin wax. To ensure sample homogeneity for different molecular profiling methods, frozen liver samples were reduced to powder with Covaris Cryoprep (Covaris Inc., Woburn, MA) system and aliquoted on dry ice. The hepatocytespecific knockout (KO) of β-catenin (Ctnnb1) in C3H/N background has been described recently (Rignall et al., 2011). Starting at 8 weeks of age, WT and KO mice were either kept on a standard diet or on a diet containing 0.05% PB for 12 weeks prior sacrifice. Livers were excised; aliquots of liver were frozen on dry ice and stored at -80°C.

Affymetrix labeling, GeneChip processing, and gene expression data analysis. Affymetrix labeling, GeneChip processing, and gene expression data analysis were conducted as described in the Supplementary Materials and Methods. All the analyses were performed in R using Bioconductor packages (www.r-project.org/ and www.bioconductor.org) (Gentleman et al., 2004) unless stated otherwise. Robust multiarray average (RMA) preprocessing was applied using the implementation of the algorithm available in R/Bioconductor (Irizarry et al., 2003). Before statistical analysis, the data were filtered to remove low-expressed probe sets. Probe sets with log 2 raw intensity values below 6 in all groups were removed of the dataset. A two-way ANOVA model (treatment and time) was then fitted to the data to assess statistical significance and linear contrasts at each time point using the Bioconductor's Limma package, which uses a Bayesian approach to better estimate the variance (Smyth, 2005). The Benjamini-Hochberg method was applied to correct for multiple comparisons (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). Probe sets with p values lower than 0.01 and fold changes above 1.5 were considered differentially expressed. For cluster analysis, Euclidean distance was used as a similarity measure, and the Ward method of linkage was applied. For summarizing the fold changes of specific clusters or probe set lists, the average fold change of each probe set in the list was calculated. For the comparison of the three studies in different strain backgrounds (B6C3F1, C57BL/6, and C3H) were normalized and analyzed together, using the same methods as above. Principal component analysis grouped the biological replicates together and separated different groups based on time point and treatment (Supplementary fig. S1A). The time-dependent separation of control groups was due to the young age (4–5 weeks old) of animals at beginning of the treatment and the strong time-dependent liver maturation effect in both control and PB-treated animals (data not shown). The liver maturation signal was subtracted (by comparing PB-treated samples with corresponding controls at each time point) from the downstream analyses reported here in order to focus only on PB treatment-associated transcriptional changes.

RNA isolation, RT-qPCR, and single-nucleotide polymorphism-sequencing analyses. RNA isolation and RT-qPCR analysis were conducted as described in the Supplementary Materials and Methods. Exonic single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) distinctive from C3H and C57BL/6 strains were identified from Mouse Genomes Project database (Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute; Keane et al., 2011) and confirmed in the Mouse Genomic Database (Eppig et al., 2012) for concordance. Selected polymorphisms were sequenced (forward and reverse) from C3H, C57BL/6, and B6C3F1 genomic DNA to confirm the appropriate genotypes (reported homozygous in the parental strains and heterozygous in B6C3F1), and confirmed SNPs were then evaluated on cDNA obtained from C3H, C57BL/6, and B6C3F1 treated or not with PB. In these experiments, RNA samples were treated with DNase to ensure the RNA purity and retrotranscribed with High Capacity kit. PCR products were purified with ExoSAP-IT (Affymetrix, OH). Sequencing reactions were performed with BigDye Terminator v3.1, purified with X-Terminator and run on an ABI 3730 DNA Analyzer (Life Technologies) following manufacturer procedures. Electropherograms were aligned using CLC Workbench 6 (CLC Bio, Aarhus, Denmark). Primers and PCR conditions available upon request.

*miRNA low-density array analysis.* miRNA profiling using TaqMan Array Rodent microRNA cards (Applied Biosystems/Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) was conducted as described in the Supplementary Materials and Methods.

hMeDIP and MeDIP protocols, array data processing, and analyses. HmeDIP and MeDIP experiments have been described in our earlier work (Thomson et al., 2012). Normalization of the log 2 probe enrichments of the IP over input signals from the Nimblegen 2.1M deluxe mouse promoter (mm9 build) arrays was performed with the Bioconductor LIMMA package (Smyth, 2004) using median subtraction (within array) and scaling (between arrays), for visualization the normalized log 2 probe enrichments were median smoothed in a 600-bp sliding window (approximately six probes).

**Reverse protein array.** Reverse protein array (RPA) analysis on the ZeptoMARK assay platform (Bayer Technology Services, Leverkusen, Germany) was performed as described in the Supplementary Materials and Methods.

In situ hybridization and immunohistochemistry. In situ hybridization (ISH) and immunohistochemistry (IHC) analysis were conducted as described in the Supplementary Materials and Methods.

CAR/PXR binding site prediction at Dlk1-Dio3 cluster. Three CAR/PXR motif-PFMs were found in the Transfac Professional database (2011/Q3 release): V\$PXR\_Q2, V\$DR4\_Q2, and V\$DR3\_Q4. Motif matches were scanned within the Dlk1-Dio3 locus (Chr12:110603831-111647695) with stringent filters (minFP, i.e., conservative, high cutoffs) minimizing the false positives (Wrzodek et al., 2010).

## **RESULTS**

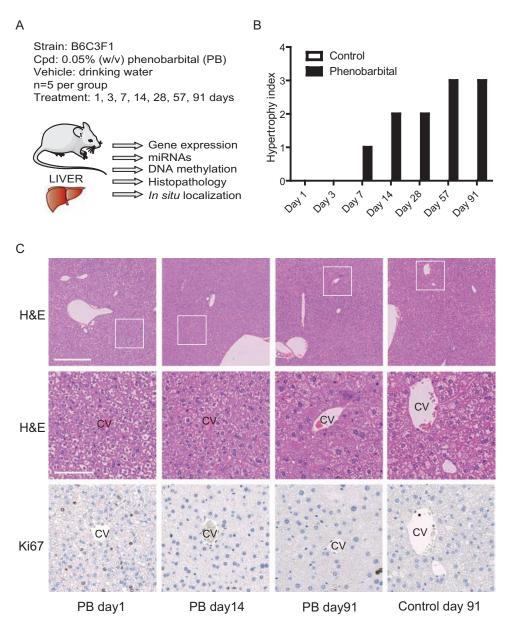
Chronic PB Treatment Leads to Transient Hepatocyte Hyperplasia and Hepatocyte Hypertrophy

Chronic PB treatment results in 100% liver tumor incidence in B6C3F1 mice (Becker, 1982). However, the precise kinetics of

molecular changes and their association with phenotypic changes in the liver have not been established. To address these questions, a kinetic study (1, 3, 7, 14, 28, 57, and 91 days of treatment) was run in B6C3F1 mice with *ad libitum* PB (0.05% [wt/vol] in drinking water) administration (Fig. 1A). Exposure analysis by liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry confirmed consistent PB plasma levels in all PB-treated animals (data not shown). The most striking histopathological abnormality detected was hepatocellular hypertrophy observed starting from 7 days of PB treatment and increasing in severity at later time points (Fig. 1B). Hypertrophy was primarily detected at perivenous hepatocytes in the central zone of the lobule (zone III) (Fig. 1C). Ki67 staining of the liver slides also revealed a transient mitotic response at earliest time points of PB treatment (Fig. 1C, bottom).

# PB Treatment Causes Temporal Perturbations of the Transcriptome

To study early events of liver tumor promotion, the temporal sequence of transcriptional perturbations associated with PB-treatment was analyzed by microarray-based gene expression profiling. PB treatment affects the transcription of a large number of genes in the liver, with ~2000 genes significantly (> 1.5-fold change, adjusted p-value < 0.01) deregulated in at least one time point of the study (Supplementary fig. S1B and table S1). The largest number of transcriptional changes was detected after 1 day of PB treatment (Supplementary fig. S1B and table S1) attributable to transient upregulation of cell cycle/mitosis-related genes (Fig. 2 and Supplementary fig. S1B and table S2; cluster 8). Drug metabolism genes, including cytochrome P450 (e.g., Cyp2b10) family enzymes, were strongly upregulated already after 1 day of PB exposure, and their expression remained high throughout the 13-week study (Fig. 2, Supplementary figs. S1B and S2 and table S2; clusters 1, 3, 4, and 5). Cluster 3 contained several genes involved in cell cycle or stem cell regulation, including Wisp1, Meig1, Gadd45b, and *Prom1*, consistent with previous reports (Lempiainen et al., 2011; Phillips et al., 2009a,b). Among the genes downregulated by PB (Supplementary figs. S1B and S2 and table S2; clusters 6 and 7), no strong enrichment for specific biological processes could be detected. To complement the gene expression analyses and extend the analysis to posttranscriptional modifications, 159 proteins/protein PTMs were measured using reverse protein arrays (Hartmann et al., 2009). The proteins/modifications were selected based on literature sand are involved in liver xenobiotic response/metabolism, liver tumor promotion, and growth regulation signaling pathways (full list in Supplementary table S3). Consistent with the transcription analysis, PB-induced changes in protein levels were observed for xenobiotic metabolism enzymes, including CYP450 enzymes and reductase POR (Supplementary figs. S3A and S3B and table S1), which were upregulated throughout the time course starting from day 1 of PB treatment. Other observed changes include perturbations in the components of the AMPK-, Aurora B-, and MEK-signaling pathways (Supplementary figs. S3A and S3B).

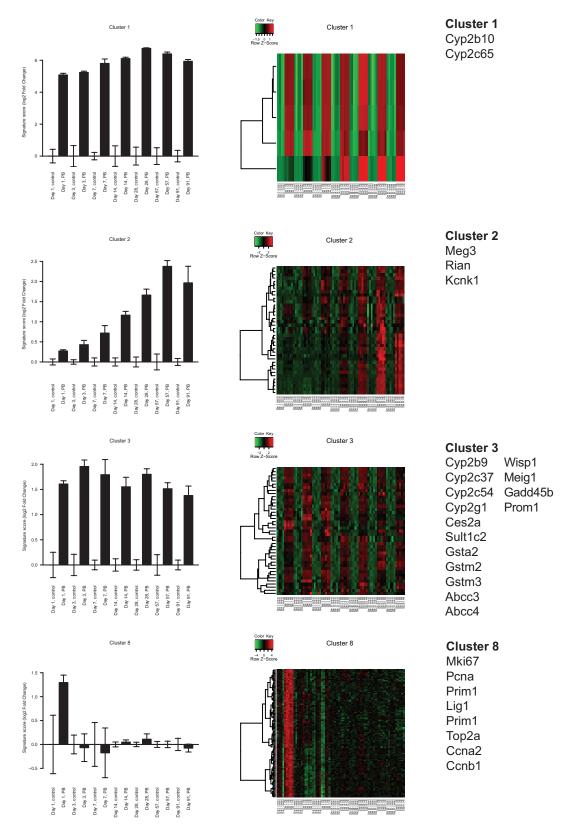


**FIG. 1.** Chronic PB treatment leads to hepatocyte hypertrophy. (**A**) Experimental design of the kinetic PB study for molecular and phenotypic profiling. Male B6C3F1 mice were given *ad libitum* access to PB or vehicle (drinking water). Mice were sacrificed at indicated time points; livers were sampled and aliquots used for genome-wide gene expression, miRNA, miRNA, DNA methylation (28-day time point only), chromatin posttranslation modifications (PTM; 28-day time point only), histopathology, and localization studies. (**B**) Hepatocellular hypertrophy index. Hepatocellular hypertrophy was evaluated by histopathology and H&E staining. The severity of hepatocellular hypertrophy was graded from 1 to 4. (**C**) Histopathology of the liver from PB-treated animals. Upper panel shows low-magnification encompassing central and portal areas (bar = 400 μm). Middle panel shows higher magnification of boxed centrilobular areas (boxed) from upper panel (bar = 100 μm). Bottom panel shows Ki67 immunoreactivity in areas corresponding to middle panel. Central vein is indicated by "CV."

# Temporal Accumulation of Dlk1-Dio3 Cluster ncRNAs Upon PB Treatment

To investigate the potential role of miRNA perturbations in early tumor promotion, we performed an miRNome analysis for all the time points of the kinetic PB study. The expression of 784 miRNAs was measured from the liver samples of each animal of the study using ABI TaqMan miRNA low-density arrays (LDA). Forty-three miRNAs were significantly (greater

than twofold change, adjusted *p*-value < 0.05) regulated by PB (Fig. 3A and Supplementary table S4), many of which were induced by PB from day 7 onwards with levels increasing at later time points (Fig. 3A). Strikingly, the majority (38) of the induced miRNAs are transcribed from the *Dlk1-Dio3* imprinted genomic cluster on chromosome 12qF1 (Fig. 3B). Several ncRNAs can be transcribed from the *Dlk1-Dio3* cluster, including ~50 miRNAs, a large group of snoRNAs and several



**FIG. 2.** PB treatment causes dynamic perturbations in the liver transcriptome. Signature score (log 2 fold changes) (left panel) and heat maps (middle panel) for selected gene expression clusters are shown. Gene expression clusters were generated using hierarchical clustering on RMA values of Affymetrix GeneChips probes that were significantly (> 1.5-fold change, *p*-value < 0.01) affected by PB treatment. Representative genes from each cluster are listed (right panel). For the full data set, see Supplementary figures S1 and S2 and table S1.

IncRNAs (Fig. 3B) and deregulation of a single large noncoding precursor RNA may account for these observations (Xie *et al.*, 2012). Consistent with the upregulation of most miRNAs from the *Dlk1-Dio3* cluster, the lncRNAs *Meg3* and *Rian* were upregulated starting from day 7 of PB treatment (Fig. 2 and Supplementary fig. S1 and table S2; cluster 2).

Due to the genomic imprinting, under normal conditions, the ncRNAs are expressed only from the maternally inherited Dlk1-Dio3 cluster allele, whereas the three protein-coding mRNAs (Dlk1, Rtl1, and Dio3) are expressed from the paternally inherited allele. The PB induction of Meg3 and Rian IncRNAs at the 28-day time point of the study was confirmed by RT-qPCR (Fig. 3C). Mirg lncRNA and Rtl1 transcripts were also upregulated upon PB exposure (Fig. 3C and Supplementary table S1), whereas the expression of the two protein-coding genes flanking the region (i.e., Dlk1 and Dio3; Fig. 3B) was unaffected (Fig. 3C). To investigate the allelic origin of Dlk1-Dio3 lncRNAs induction, we sequenced genomic DNA and cDNA from parental strains (B6C3F1 originates from a cross between female C57BL/6 and male C3H) to identify parental specific polymorphisms (Supplementary fig. S4A) that can be used to discriminate allelic origin of Dlk1-Dio3 induction. These analyses identified a series of SNPs within different regions of the imprinted cluster (Supplementary fig. S4A) and demonstrated that the lncRNAs are transcribed and induced by PB from the maternal allele (Fig. 3D and Supplementary fig. S4A). These analyses were also confirmed using SYBR Green qPCR assays with strand-specific primers to demonstrate that PB induces transcription of anti-Rtl1 (maternal), but not Rtl1 (Supplementary fig. S4B). In summary, these allelic analyses show induction of the lncRNAs from the maternal allele, suggesting increased expression from the maternal allele rather than loss of imprinting. The lack of any striking DNA methylation changes upon PB treatment (Supplementary fig. S5; Thomson et al., 2012) at the Meg3 promoter and intergenic imprinting regulatory regions (Sato et al., 2011) is consistent with imprinting of the locus not being affected. The upregulation of Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNAs might involve direct transactivation by nuclear receptors such as CAR/PXR via one or more of ~25 putative CAR/PXR-binding sites (Supplementary table S5).

# PB Induces Meg3 Expression in Glutamine Synthetase-Positive Hypertrophic Hepatocytes

To further investigate the possible role of the *Dlk1-Dio3* cluster ncRNAs in early pathological events of NGC, we used the molecular localization of *Meg3* lncRNA expression as a representative surrogate marker for determining the liver cell-type specificity of *Dlk1-Dio3* cluster ncRNA expression and modulation by PB. ISH using DIG-labeled single-stranded riboprobes targeting a conserved 500-bp region in the *Meg3* transcript was used to localize *Meg3* in liver sections. Very few cells expressed *Meg3* in untreated liver or at early time points of PB treatment (Fig. 4) consistent with *Meg3* transcript

profiling data from homogenized liver tissue (Fig. 2; cluster 2). An increased number of cells expressing *Meg3* were detected after 14 days of PB treatment and continued to increase with time (Fig. 4). The *Meg3* transcript is detected in the nuclei of perivenous hepatocytes in the central zone of the lobule and the hepatocytes expressing *Meg3* are hypertrophic, suggesting that expression of *Dlk1-Dio3* cluster ncRNAs may be linked to hypertrophic phenotype.

Tumor promotion by PB is also dependent on the  $\beta$ -catenin signaling pathway (Rignall *et al.*, 2011), and PB-promoted tumors often have activating mutations in the *Ctnnb1* gene (Aydinlik *et al.*, 2001). Glutamine synthetase (GS) expression is directly regulated by  $\beta$ -catenin, and GS can be used as marker for *Ctnnb1*-mutated tumors (Loeppen *et al.*, 2002). To test if  $\beta$ -catenin signaling may be involved in the dysregulation of *Dlk1-Dio3* cluster ncRNAs upon PB exposure colocalization of *Meg3* (ISH) and GS (IHC) was assessed (Fig. 4). *Meg3* expression was almost exclusively detected in GS-positive cells (~90% colocalization), supporting a link between  $\beta$ -catenin signaling and *Meg3* expression.

# CAR and β-Catenin Signaling Regulate Dlk1-Dio3 Cluster Expression

To investigate the mechanistic basis of PB-mediated perturbations in Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNA expression, we assessed potential genetic dependence on CAR and β-catenin pathways that have previously been shown to be essential for PB-mediated mouse hepatocarcinogenesis (Huang et al., 2005; Rignall et al., 2011; Yamamoto et al., 2004). C57BL/6 CAR/PXR double KO (CARKO/PXRKO) and WT mice (Scheer et al., 2008) were treated for 13 weeks with PB (or vehicle). Maternally transcribed Meg3 and Rian ncRNAs, but not paternally transcribed Dlk1 mRNA, were upregulated by PB in C57BL/6 WT animals (Supplementary figs 5A and S6) consistent with our observations in B6C3F1 mice (Fig. 3). In contrast to B6C3F1 mice, no upregulation of Mirg was detected in the C57BL/6 animals (Supplementary fig. S6), which might be due to the very low microarray signal levels for Mirg. No PB-mediated induction of Meg3 or Rian expression was observed in CARKO/PXRKO mice indicating that CAR/PXR are required for the PB induction of the Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNAs. Transcript profiling of CAR KO C3H/He mice (Phillips et al., 2009a) further supports CAR-mediated regulation of hepatic Meg3 transcription. We also assessed the reversibility of PB-induced genes 4 weeks after the removal of PB from the diet (following 13 weeks of PB exposure). Expression of the genes that were induced after 13-week PB exposure (Meg3, Rian, and Cyp2b10) returned back to basal levels after the 4-week recovery period (Fig. 5A), indicating that the PB effect on Dlk1-Dio3 cluster and Cyp2b10 expression was reversible.

The contribution of  $\beta$ -catenin signaling to the expression of Dlk1-Dio3 cluster transcripts was evaluated using conditional hepatocyte-specific Ctnnb1 KO mice  $(Ctnnb1^{KO})$  and corresponding WT animals (in C3H background) (Rignall et al.,

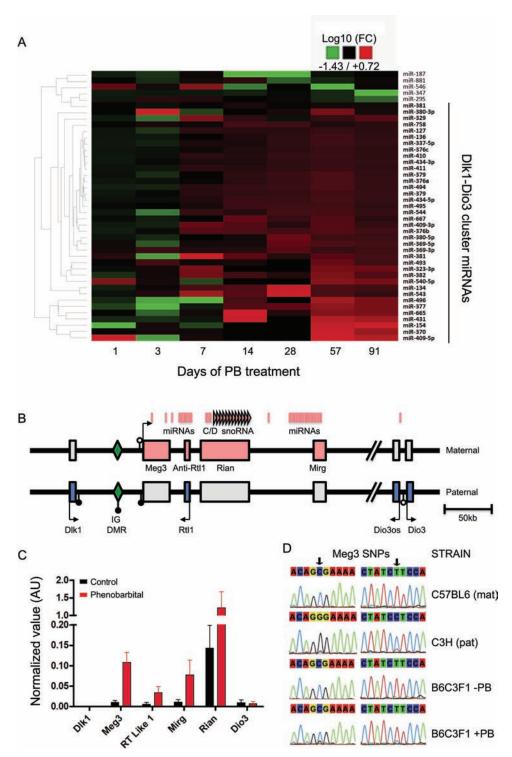


FIG. 3. Kinetic induction of miRNAs and lncRNAs from the *Dlk1-Dio3* imprinted cluster upon PB exposure. (A) miRNA profiling: Expression of 784 miRNAs was measured by using ABI TaqMan miRNA LDA. The heat map shows all the miRNAs that were up- or downregulated more than twofold (with adjusted *p*-value < 0.05) in at least one time point. miRNAs transcribed from the *Dlk1-Dio3* cluster are indicated in bold. (B) Architecture of *Dlk1-Dio3* genomic region: maternal and paternal alleles illustrating the transcripts of parental origin. Under normal conditions, IG-DMR and *Meg3*-DMR methylation of the parental allele regulates the genomic imprinting. (C) PB induction of lncRNAs and *Rtl1* expression from *Dlk1-Dio3* cluster at the 4-week time point. RT-qPCR analysis of lncRNA (*Meg3*, *Rian*, and *Mirg*) and coding gene (*Rtl1*, *Dlk1*, and *Dio3*) expression. (D) Meg3 SNPs electropherograms alignment on liver cDNA from each parental strains (C3H and C57/BL6) and from the 91-day B6C3F1 samples treated (+PB) or untreated (-PB) with PB. Polymorphisms are indicated with arrows, demonstrating maternal expression of the analyzed transcript. A comprehensive allelic analysis is available in Supplementary figure S4A.

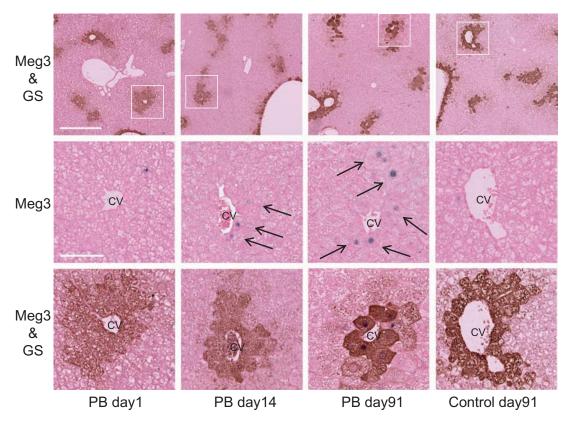


FIG. 4. Expression and localization of *Meg3* in the liver. Upper panel: Colocalization of *Meg3* transcript (ISH: blue) and GS (IHC: brown) protein in control (91 days) and treated (1, 14, and 91 days) livers. Boxes indicate venous regions of the central zone of the lobule that are magnified in the middle and bottom panels. Middle panel: Localization of *Meg3*. Arrows indicate cells showing positive *Meg3* ISH staining. Blue staining at day 1 is unspecific non-nuclear background. Bottom panel: Colocalization of Meg3 and GS stainings. Central vein is indicated by "CV."

2011) that were treated for 12 weeks with either PB or vehicle. PB treatment led to increased Meg3 and Rian transcript levels in C3H WT mouse livers. Basal expression levels of Meg3 and Rian were reduced and induction upon PB treatment was lost in  $Ctnnb1^{KO}$  mouse livers (Fig. 5A), indicating that β-catenin is required for both the basal expression and PB-induction of the Dlk1-Dio3 cluster genes. In contrast to CAR<sup>KO</sup>/PXR<sup>KO</sup> animals, the  $Ctnnb1^{KO}$  led to an increase in basal expression levels of Cyp2b10, and Cyp2b10 expression was induced by PB treatment. Together, these results suggest that CAR and β-catenin pathways positively regulate the expression of the Dlk1-Dio3 cluster lncR-NAs (Fig. 5B) and link the regulation of the Dlk1-Dio3 cluster to the pathways that are essential for tumor promotion by PB.

## DISCUSSION

The initiating events and early temporal molecular perturbations leading to NGC are poorly understood. NGC is a common toxicity finding in rodents in preclinical safety assessment, for which no well-validated reliable short-term assays and biomarkers exist. Here, we have used integrated molecular profiling to characterize the temporal dynamics of molecular responses to PB in mouse liver and to identify novel early biomarkers for liver tumor promotion.

We have identified the induction of miRNAs and lncRNAs encoded from the Dlk1-Dio3 imprinted gene cluster as novel early molecular responses to a liver tumor-promoting dose of PB. The carcinogenic relevance of hepatic Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNA induction (Fig. 5B) is supported by the following observations: (1) PB induction of Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNAs is genetically dependent on CAR and β-catenin, two pathways essential for PB-mediated liver tumor promotion; (2) Neither Meg3 nor Rian lncRNAs were upregulated in B6C3F1 mouse kidney following 4 weeks exposure to PB (Lempiainen et al., 2011), consistent with the liver specificity of the carcinogenesis phenotype that is observed following long-term (12 months) PB exposure (Becker, 1982); (3) Meg3 is overexpressed in PB-promoted liver tumors (Phillips et al., 2009a; Unterberger and Schwarz, unpublished data; Supplementary table); (4) PB induction of the *Dlk1-Dio3* cluster ncRNA expression was reversible, consistent with the observation that NGC tumor promotion effects are usually reversible until a certain point-ofno-return (Spindler et al., 2000). It is also noteworthy that the Dlk1-Dio3 gene cluster is located close to a genetically characterized mouse hepatocarcinogenesis susceptibility locus (hcs3) on chromosome 12 (Gariboldi et al., 1993).

The molecular functions and targets of the *Dlk1-Dio3* cluster ncRNAs are largely unknown. *Meg3* lncRNA has been reported

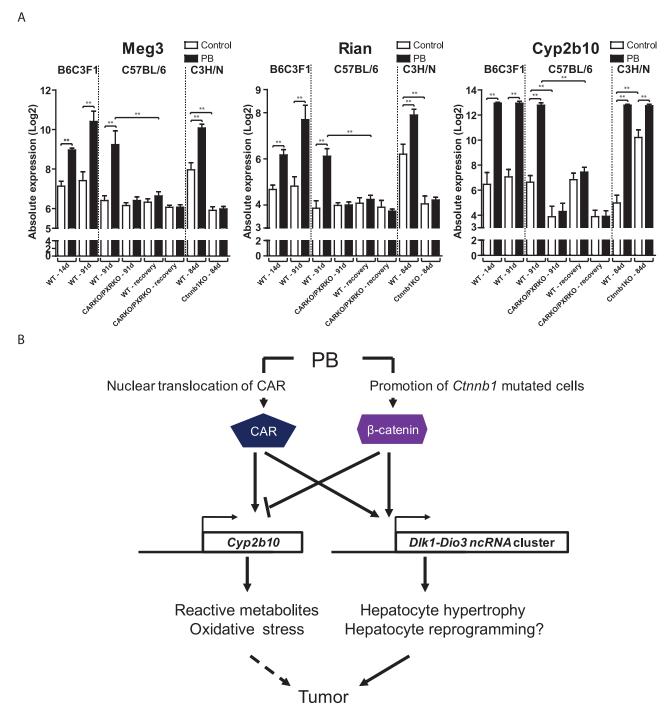


FIG. 5. CAR and beta-catenin pathway dependency, reversibility, and mouse strain differences for Dlk1-Dio3 cluster lncRNA induction by PB. (A) Expression of lncRNAs from the Dlk1-Dio3 cluster is regulated by CAR/PXR and β-catenin pathways. Expression of Cyp2b10, Meg3, and Rian was determined using Affymetrix GeneChips; bars indicate mean signal values for four to seven biological replicates; lines on top of bars indicate standard deviation. BH statistical analysis was used to calculate significance within the three studies (in different mouse strain backgrounds): \*BH < 0.05, fold change > 2; \*\*BH < 0.001, fold change > 2. (B) Model for PB-induced perturbation of the Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNA and Cyp2b10 expression. PB upregulates the expression of Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNAs via CAR and β-catenin pathways, whereas Cyp2b10 expression is induced by CAR pathway but inhibited by β-catenin pathway. The mechanisms by which CAR and β-catenin regulate Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNAs are currently unknown. The increased expression of Dlk1-Dio3 ncRNAs upon PB exposure is associated with hepatocyte hypertrophy and, based on literature, might contribute to reprogramming of hepatocytes (Luk *et al.*, 2011). The genetic dependence of Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNA induction on both CAR and β-catenin supports a role in tumor promotion.

to function as a cofactor of polycomb repressor complex 2, directing the chromatin modifier complex to the Dlk1 gene and thereby regulating *Dlk1* expression (Zhao et al., 2010). Some of the Dlk1-Dio3 cluster miRNAs may target c-Myc transcripts and thereby regulate cell growth and pluripotency (Thayanithy et al., 2012). An important role for the Dlk1-Dio3 cluster in regulating cellular stemness is suggested by two publications reporting that Dlk1-Dio3 transcript levels correlate with pluripotency status of induced pluripotent stem cells (Liu et al., 2010; Stadtfeld et al., 2010). Dlk1-Dio3 cluster expression perturbations have also been reported in mouse and human hepatocellular carcinomas (HCCs) (Braconi et al., 2011; Luk et al., 2011), and overexpression of these ncRNAs in human HCC samples has been attributed to a subtype of tumors containing stem-like cells that are associated with poor prognosis (Luk et al., 2011). Importantly, the activation of this imprinted domain by in vivo gene targeting induces hepatocellular carcinoma, robustly demonstrating a role for the Dlk1-Dio3 cluster in liver carcinogenesis (Wang et al., 2012). In our study, increased Meg3 expression upon PB treatment was detected specifically in hypertrophic perivenous hepatocytes. It is not yet clear whether Meg3 is transcriptionally upregulated by PB in central hepatocytes as part of a hypertrophic response or alternatively whether PB induces the clonal expansion of rare preexisting Meg3-expressing hepatocytes in adult liver (hypertrophy/hyperplasia). A possible consequence of Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNA induction in hypertrophic hepatocytes might be cellular re-programming. There is evidence supporting the dedifferentiation of hepatocytes during hepatocarcinogenesis (Gournay et al., 2002) and both normal and neoplastic non-stem cells can be converted to a stem-like state (Chaffer et al., 2011). The potential role of Dlk1-Dio3 cluster induction in hepatocyte reprogramming or a "return to stemness" during the early stages of liver tumor promotion thus warrants further investigation.

Our data indicate that Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNAs might serve as useful early biomarkers of rodent hepatocarcinogenesis. However, an increased understanding of mechanisms underlying carcinogenesis has raised doubts regarding the appropriateness of extrapolating some rodent tumor findings to humans (Holsapple et al., 2006). Prolonged treatment with PB does increase the liver size in humans (Pirttiaho et al., 1982), but human hepatocytes are resistant to the ability of PB to increase cell proliferation (Hasmall and Roberts, 1999; Parzefall et al., 1991) and inhibit apoptosis (Hasmall and Roberts, 1999). There is also a convincing body of epidemiology data indicating that PB is not a human carcinogen (IARC, 2001; Lamminpaa et al., 2002). A human relevance framework concept, with the central tenets being the identification of a mode of action (MoA) and key events, was developed to evaluate human risk based on rodent tumor data, and it has been applied to PB (Holsapple et al., 2006). Increased cell proliferation, hypertrophy, and inhibition of apoptosis are the key CARdependent tumorigenic effects of PB (Huang et al., 2005; Wei et al., 2000; Whysner et al., 1996; Yamamoto et al., 2004) and fulfill the criteria for a chemical carcinogenesis MoA (Sonich-Mullin et al., 2001). Cytochrome P450 (Cyp2b10) expression and enzyme activity have recently been proposed as a surrogate biomarker for CAR activation at cessation of a mouse carcinogenesis bioassay (Hoflack et al., 2012). However, cytochrome P450 enzyme activity generally lacks sufficient sensitivity, accuracy, and specificity as an early predictive biomarker for nongenotoxic carcinogens (Elcombe et al., 2002). Although PB-mediated Cyp2b10 induction is dependent on CAR, it can still occur in the absence of β-catenin signaling, thereby unlinking Cyp2b10 regulation from a key signaling pathway required for PB-mediated hepatocarcinogenesis (Rignall et al., 2011). Importantly, we show that PB-mediated Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNA induction is genetically dependent on both CAR and β-catenin signaling, supporting its candidate biomarker potential. To further evaluate biomarker sensitivity, specificity, and human relevance, it will be important to investigate the expression of the Dlk1-Dio3 cluster ncRNAs following treatment with a panel of nongenotoxic or genotoxic carcinogens and non-hepatocarcinogens in a range of WT rodent strains and transgenic mouse models expressing the human CAR/PXR nuclear receptors (www.imi-marcar.eu).

### SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available online at http://toxsci.oxfordjournals.org/.

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